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PEABODY JOURNAL
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Address of Welcome

Seventy-five thousand young Americans will enter the school room professionally for the first time this fall. Some of them will be poorly educated, a few of them perhaps even dull. Most of them will be brighter and more understanding than generally they are given credit for. Many of them will be specially sensitive to the needs and natures of children. Boredom will afflict very few of them. They will find their world and work exciting and at times wholesomely baffling. They will now and then catch glimpses of the enduring nature of the work they are doing.

Below we print statements by nineteen whose teaching careers begin in September. These will be better prepared than most of their beginning colleagues. Each will have the master's degree, newly awarded by George Peabody College for Teachers. Each will have the bachelor's degree from the college indicated. Their buoyance and good will and acquaintance with the basic parts and procedures of teaching ought to augur well for the children assigned to their guidance.

Symposium

Education and Rational Thinking

We come here today in defense of some of the great realities of life. We come to continue the guarantee of progress in the future by continuing a knowledge of progress in the past. We come to proclaim our allegiance to those ideals which have made the predominant civilization of the earth. We come because we believe that thought is the master

of things. We come because we realize that the only road to freedom lies through a knowledge of the truth.

Coolidge

The above statement was made by Calvin Coolidge in an address given at the Annual Meeting of the American Classical League at the University of Pennsylvania in 1921. Its relevancy to an article on "Education and Rational Thinking" lies in the phrase, "thought . . . the master of things." There will always remain certain permanent values which education must cultivate. I believe Mr. Coolidge had these in mind when he expressed the thought I have just quoted. Had he enumerated these permanent values, he surely would have included the ability to think clearly and rationally. Education should aim to teach students to lead a life of reason, or as Mr. Hutchins contends, "The task of education is to make rational animals more perfectly rational."

Education must include some training in rational thinking if it is to meet with any degree of success. It must present a rational order, rationally arrived at else the entire process result in chaos. If the standards for social criticism and social action are to be anything but emotional standards, they must result from philosophical and historical study and from the habit of straight thinking therein. Biology teaches us that the individual goes through the various stages of evolution which have brought him to his present state of perfection. Most theories of education teach us that the mind develops in the same way, rising through the various stages that have marked the ascent of man kind from the lowest savagery to the highest civilization. This principle is a compelling reason for the continuance of the so-called classics and an aim for rational thinking as the foundations of our educational system. The ability to think correctly is the characteristic of a disciplined mind, and the study of the classics is unsurpassed thus far as a discipline method. Not even our modern psychologists will argue that point. To me, there is no surer way to become proficient in the faculties of observation, understanding, and reason, and thereby become possessed of self-control and intelligence. There have never been great people who did not possess these elements of great learning.

Too often we are prone to mistake a mere mental habit for serious thinking. There is nothing to praise in an answer which is merely our old nature repeating itself by rote. It has no moral quality. Men are

not moral till they rule themselves to the extent of doing better than they would do by nature. That fact alone supplies the basis of the need for rational thinking as part of our education.

Mr. John Macdonald in his book, *Mind, School, and Civilization* says, "The educated mind is the mind that has been brought under the control of reason." The trend in modern education is toward attributing man's actions to nonrational factors, i.e. emotion, instinct, impulse, and the like. This would not be too difficult to accept if we could bring ourselves to disregard Aristotle's statement that "man is a rational animal." If man is not rational, as some modern educators would have us believe, if reason is to be given no possible part in the determining of ends, then there can be no real education. The psychologists are quick to counter that nonrational processes may be trained so as to be directed toward desirable ends. Is that not an admission that man's actions and aims can be controlled by reason and ideally are?

To think reasonably implies two things. Negatively, it implies resistance to the natural impulses to react immediately to a single aspect of a situation; positively, it implies the effort to see the situation in all its aspects, to take account of the relevant factors. The need for rational thinking becomes apparent, and as a result, its place of import in education cannot be denied. The educated man thinks rationally before he acts, and the uneducated man does not.

I feel some mention of reason as related to science should be made. Science as an instrument of mind-training, and even of liberal education, it seems to me, has a far higher value than is usually conceded to it by humanists. Its study promotes a fine respect for truth and fact, for order and outline, and helps to elevate the mind. Yet, science alone is insufficient. Science does not tell us where to go. Men may employ it for good or evil purposes. It is the men that decide upon and have the purposes, and they do not learn them from their scientific studies. It is not enough to teach men science; the great thing is to teach them how to use science. There are two main phases in the work of a research scientist. One is the discovery of facts. The other is the construction of an intellectual pattern that will explain them in combination with other known facts. That's where reason comes in.

Gilbert Highet expressed this thought far better than I could when he said: "Knowledge is invaluable. Thought makes us human. Yet

thought and knowledge are inadequate: if used alone, they make us less than fully human." Could he have reference to anything but reason?

—Elizabeth Mason
Mary Washington College

The Teacher in the Community

As a prospective new teacher about to enter a community I naturally wonder just what will be expected of me as a teacher and as a citizen in this community. I have some very definite ideas of my own concerning the role of the teacher in the community. I think that first, the teacher is a human being, then a citizen, and then a teacher.

As a human being the new teacher will naturally want to meet and mix with other people of the community and participate with them in all types of activities. I think the school should provide some means for the new teacher to become acquainted with organizations and activities which interest him. Only by becoming acquainted with other individuals can the teacher become an integral part of the community and perform his job as a teacher to the best of his ability.

As a citizen, I think that the teacher has a very definite obligation to exercise all citizenship rights and would be setting a very poor example for future citizens if he did not do so. I think it is the responsibility of the teacher to contribute his services toward community improvements as any other good citizen would do. The teacher should also guide his pupils in community projects and help them to find community tasks. The teacher cannot turn his back on community activities at the end of the school day and still expect to make a meaningful contribution as a teacher.

As a biology teacher I think I will have numerous opportunities to guide my pupils in community thinking. For instance, there is always the problem of community health and sanitation which could be a real challenge to a biology teacher in a community where many health facilities may be lacking. In this instance the teacher might find himself in the position of a leader for community action. Again it seems to me

that it would be the teacher's civic responsibility to accept the leadership and try his best towards improving the situation. Of course, the biology teacher can't be expected to assume the role of a sanitary engineer or a health expert, but he could act as a leader to get the project underway. In a farming community the biology teacher may have the obligation of introducing better methods of soil utilization. This of course would not be limited to a biology teacher alone, but could be instigated by any civic minded teacher.

Although many individuals feel that the place of the teacher is in the school only, I believe that the real teacher must act as a liason between the school and all phases of community life. Finally I think it can be said that the teacher's job is to combine school experiences with community experiences to make a democratic program of living.

—Fred P. Whittaker, Jr.
Birmingham-Southern

WANTED . . . Alive!

Biology—the study of life. How ironical this simple definition may sound to many students in our secondary schools! To them it is a study, dull and uninteresting, with its lectures, outlines, and text book containing "a body of organized facts." The instructor stresses that the scientific method is quite important, steps 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5. He relates to animals and plants as if they were extinct rather than alive and observable. Apparently, this teaching pattern is not very effective.

This is the challenge I would present to teachers and future teachers of biology in our high schools. "Make biology *live* for your students!"

Enthusiasm is contagious. Take advantage of its character in your teaching. How can one be enthusiastic about teaching when he has poor equipment with which to work? Evaluate and consider your equipment. It may consist of a few alert and inquiring minds, the passive and wandering minds of some, and the rebellious and defiant minds of others who have declared that there is nothing in biology that interests them. The instructor is challenged to work with these students to guide them in obtaining an understanding of themselves and of their

environment. Survey the great out-of-doors, the community, its citizens and its industry. Here are resources for biology teaching which are waiting to be tapped and utilized by the energetic and resourceful teacher.

The laboratory is an excellent place to develop a scientific attitude, that of unbiased consideration or objectivity in facing unsolved problems. The scientific method which utilizes experimentation and observation may become practical and useful to the biology student in this phase of his instruction. What better way is there to grasp an understanding of the fundamental processes of life than through actual observation and experimentation? To what degree is understanding acquired by a student who memorizes the names of the stars in a constellation but never observes them? Just how meaningful can the names and functions of muscles, parts of the digestive, circulatory, respiratory, and other fundamental systems of animals be without actual dissection and observation of specimen? Are not the structures and functions of plant life better understood through this method of presentation?

It is assumed that it is any teacher's duty to guide students so that they attain an understanding of the things he is striving to teach. It is my belief that any science, to be understood, must have a functional program of laboratory work. Dr. Claude Chadwick has illustrated very effectively the importance of the laboratory in science. He states that, trying to teach a biology class without actual experimentation is like trying to nourish the body by reading about and looking at beautifully colored illustrations of food in a magazine.

The use of this type of teaching is effective in that students tend to remember facts more readily when they can relate them to their experiences. Interest is created and advanced through laboratory work and the cold facts of science are brought to life for the neophyte biologist. The biology instructor thus contributes to "Education, a debt due from present to future generations."

—Flodell Appleton
Union University

Let's Re-emphasize Some Neglected Skills

Today, as modern progressive education continues to make rapid gains in our school systems, many young people beginning a career in teaching find themselves faced with a problem prevalent throughout the country. We are training young people in our high schools and graduating them as potentially good and useful citizens of the world, and are, at the same time, neglecting to furnish them with tools which would help them to become the best and most useful citizens.

The current generation of school children can neither read nor spell with any ease or alacrity, and their predecessors are not much better off. They can read well enough to mumble through the funnies in the daily newspaper or the latest comic books, but the new adventures of Spaceman give little insight into the pros and cons of defending Formosa. The information vital to understanding world and national problems, an understanding necessary to enable citizens to vote and participate in government intelligently, is found on the front pages of the newspaper and in such reading material as *U.S. News and World Report*, not to mention the innumerable books on current affairs which are published every year.

True, we read about the remedial reading program in our professional magazines and in education textbooks, but all of our poor readers are not just slow or backward. They are simply boys and girls who need some practice in reading aloud, in pronouncing and spelling words, and in reading rapidly. After these skills are improved, and only then, can students be guided into intelligent and constructive reading.

Don't dismiss this as being something for English teachers alone, because they are the ones who are supposed to carry on a reading program. Good reading is important in every classroom. Consequently it is the responsibility of every teacher to have some activity in which reading and spelling are emphasized. If every teacher in every classroom would devote a few minutes a week to building the skills of reading and spelling, the results within a year would be both startling and gratifying.

Just how are we to improve the reading and spelling of our students? Rudolph Flesch in a recently published book, *Why Johnny Can't Read And What You Can Do About It*, has advanced one theory which has

caused a great deal of dissent and argument among educators. But the answer to this question is one which teachers have found useful for the solution of a great many of their problems. That is, use the method which works best in your situation and brings the best results.

When does the average teacher have time to work this program into the daily activities? Perhaps if, for a change, students could be given some old-fashioned homework, then the time they usually devote to preparing their short assignments could be used for reading and spelling drills. Even though there are some good readers in the class, they can still improve.

As teachers, we cannot wait for a memorandum from the principal stating that he recommends that each teacher take action in this matter. The best way to get the job done is for each individual teacher to recognize that there is a need for re-emphasizing these skills and do what he or she can to help bring about this new emphasis.

—Judy Rowlett
Hendrix College

Listen, My Children!

Music has been termed the universal language. This definition does not limit the language to performing, although it is an important phase of music. Listening is perhaps a more essential aspect to everyone — to the musician as well as the non-musician. Understanding and appreciation for music depends upon creative listening. In itself, creativity is the "conditio sine qua non" of all music . . . the wordless language.

Music is more than performance. It is a combined interpretative communication between the listener and the performer. A thought presented through music is elucidated only with clear understanding of the musical meaning for the individual. It is obvious these interpretations may conflict outwardly. Yet the degree of agreement is irrelevant to the essence of its meaning. Interpretation is the language of the performer; the understanding of this interpretation is the language of the listening audience.

This communication is acquired in the same manner as any other language . . . . through creative listening. One cannot speak a language until he has heard it spoken. Likewise is this principle applicable in music. There are in music as many different qualities and inflections as there are in any language. Musical knowledge for understanding and "taste" is acquired. It is not an innate quality. Only through education does one attain a desire for various types of music. Whoever has the determined desire has the opportunity to learn music by listening.

Listening is truly the essence of all music. Regardless of the differing opinions among musicians, it cannot be denied that the zenith of music is its affect upon the listening audience. Music must create in individuals a certain quality of the emotion, or of the intellect, whichever point of view is honored. Oftentimes this affect cannot be expressed verbally. But this is of little concern. Of main importance is the presence of a feeling which is attainable provided the audience knows how to grasp its possible messages. The only way to perceive this knowledge is to listen. This is a responsibility of the secondary school music sytem. The answer is necessitated by creative listening.

Creative listening in music is the individual's expressed reaction upon hearing a musical composition. If ever one submits to his inhibitions, music listening is perhaps one of the safest and most satisfying mediums. It is not uncommon to set motions to music. Numerous dances, stories, ideas, and thoughts are outgrowths of a single selection. Outward expression will yield to a more definite interpretation; thus, a sound understanding and appreciation for music will be established.

Enjoyment is necessary for successful listening. Music listening should not be a task, a hard-driven duty. It is a time for "change of thought," for both mental and physical relaxation. Listening should not be imperative. Begin first with music known and liked, followed gradually through a development of all phases of music. Enjoyment and creative listening are inseparable for the most effective results.

An excellent test of listening and interpretation is composing. Too long, a stigma has hovered over this phase of music. This unnecessary situation can be overcome by the utilization of various types of composing: improvisation and arrangement. These are steps toward the ultimate expressive means of original composition. The results are not

to be a great aria or symphony, but attaining a greater appreciation and understanding of music.

In any branch of the "music tree" listening cannot be neglected. It is the common factor which links together all its arts. Secondary school music systems have the greatest opportunity for training its students in this manner. For them, as the mature persons of later years, music will have a new meaning and a more intimate purpose. Regardless of their chosen profession, students of the secondary schools would receive a necessary gain which music contributes, and, in turn, will contribute to a greater appreciation of music among our people . . . . for they will know the training and opportunity to listen.

—Barbara Barron
West Virginia Wesleyan

Sentences and Students

I have just finished grading a set of test papers handed in by a Junior class which caused me to think of the importance of good, clear, concise writing. It is appalling to think that these students will be graduating from a high school in another year and that their knowledge of the value of a good sentence is so small. Out of the sixty-odd papers read only about a half dozen wrote good sentences. The others seemed to be content to write sentences which were inferior in quality. All of these students had had the same advantages — each has had three years of study in one of Tennessee's better schools, each has been exposed to a stiff course in sentence construction, and each has had countless opportunities to practice the theories which have been taught them. Yet, only a handful have learned their lessons well enough to write a good sentence.

Why is this? Is it because they have not been duly impressed with the importance of the sentence in their everyday lives? Is it because the teachers they have had in previous years did not think the sentence an important subject for classroom concentration? Is it because the value of the sentence in our society is decreasing? No! I believe that the fault lies in the students themselves. They do not care about the things

which are taught them in school. They learn the theories because they think they will be asked to write the rules of grammar on their six-weeks test, but as soon as this test is over, the rules are forgotten.

This seeming disregard for the retention of the theories on the part of students may lie in the laps of our teachers. The teacher presents the rules of sentence construction to the students, and then asks them to repeat them on the test, but after this test, the teacher may not insist that the students follow the rules on their other work. The English teacher usually does this, but he is not helped by the other teachers in the school. I do not advocate that every teacher in a school be a teacher of English, but I do believe that every teacher should insist that all writing done for his class be done in an acceptable manner. Sentences which are correct have places in other classes than English. Sentences are used in many circumstances in life, and a person is often judged solely on his ability to construct a simple sentence.

If the schools are to turn out the type of person that our nation needs in its government, its business and its profession, this apparently trivial thing must be corrected. Our young people must learn to write, and write correctly. The time to begin this training is now when the need is so great.

—Thomas E. Bass, Jr.
Randolph-Macon

The "Bogey Bear" of the High School Curriculum

"I hate mathematics. It's so boring and mechanical. I see no value in being able to solve an algebraic equation." There is probably no teacher of mathematics who has taught average junior and senior high school students who has not heard these familiar exclamations at one time or another. What are the reasons for students having such unhealthy and unwholesome attitudes toward mathematics? Is it the students themselves or could the sources for such attitudes lie elsewhere?

Very often a student is influenced by one of his group who is older than the other members of the group. The attitudes of the older student towards a subject or idea become the attitudes of the younger student

because each member of the group wishes to conform to the concepts, mores, and attitudes of the whole group. An older student who has experienced a course in mathematics forms his ideas about mathematics, and these attitudes are sometimes passed to younger students.

It might be very possible that some of the parents of our junior and senior high school students need to be re-educated. Students often hear their parents discussing the difficulties they experienced in struggling through high school mathematics, and students are led to believe that they are justified in holding the attitudes towards mathematics which they have. Just because a parent had trouble solving the equation $2X = 10$ in high school is no indication that the children of that parent should have the same experience.

The enthusiasm and zest with which a teacher conveys his subject to the students in his class influence the concepts which the students will form about the subject. A teacher of mathematics has innumerable opportunities to display sincere enthusiasm about his subject and to make the subject interesting to all types of students. It may take a different technique and different phase of mathematics to gain the interest and enthusiasm of each student, but a teacher who is determined to gain the interest of each of his students will find and use all the necessary techniques and methods for accomplishing this task. Too often the mathematics teacher goes to foreign sources for enrichment material when there is an abundance of available material right at hand ready to be used which is of vital interest to the students. For example, when a mathematics class begins to study graphs the members of the class might use data gathered from the school's scores on football, baseball, and basketball for a season in making graphs. And what student is not interested in his school's participation in sports? The class would probably also be interested in using the increase and decrease in enrollment for their school over a period of years as data in studying graphs. There is no end to the available materials which can be used by energetic teachers to add to the interest and enrichment of the study of mathematics. These tools may be used to change the attitude of some students toward mathematics which has prevented them from appreciating, enjoying, and succeeding in mathematics.

As I launch out on my teaching career next year, I expect to encounter students who view mathematics as a rather mysterious subject, designed

to meet the needs of only a few select people; however, I shall attempt to make mathematics a meaningful, living, interesting subject to these individuals. It is my conviction that it is only after a student's interest is engrossed in a subject that learning experiences become most pleasing and meaningful. It is my desire to find some phase of mathematics which will be of interest to each student and in which each student can experience some success.

—Carolyn Dale Jones
Winthrop College

Enriched Teaching

All of us at sometime in our undergraduate or graduate years in colleges or universities have taken methods courses or courses in research materials for our particular subject fields. I'm sure I'm not unusual in the affect such courses have upon me.

I find that as I study various methods for enriching my subject, mathematics, I become more and more enthusiastic about it. It is always hard for me to put down a magazine without making notes in order to be able to recall any material which I feel that I may be able to use later. As I study the history of mathematics and begin to see and feel the human side of the subject that is thought of as being "cold and technical," I resolve to try to give to my students some of that side of mathematics. I copy from the *Mathematics Teacher* a play, or for that matter any other material, which gives a history of math that every child would understand and enjoy. I become quite professional in my attitude and join the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. I can't wait until I can begin to use the material I accumulate to enrich my classroom work.

Methods courses and research courses always affect me in the above way. *But*, I am aware that it is quite hard to maintain the professional enthusiasm that such courses arouse. I found that even during the period of my student teaching, when I had only a few classes to teach, I began to be tempted to take the "easy way out" and use the textbook exclusively for my preparation without attempting to find a better or a

more interesting way to present the material. I realize that when a teacher has four or five different lessons to prepare, enthusiasm for enrichment could disappear entirely.

I believe that it is the responsibility of every teacher to retain as much as possible of that professional spirit that flares up avidly at least once during some course of her school days. I think that every teacher owes it to herself and to her students to belong to such organizations as the National Education Association and the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics; not only to belong to the organizations but to read and make use of the materials which they publish. I become quite "put out with" some of the prospective teachers I know when they say that they will not belong to the NEA or other professional organizations unless they are required to do so. Teaching will become a true profession in the eyes of *every* citizen, and receive remuneration in keeping with other professions, when *every* teacher begins to exercise professional interest and professional pride in teaching.

—June Long
Alabama Polytechnic Institute

The Place of Graphic Arts

The graphic arts have become an important and integral part of life in the world today. It is impossible to think of our society without printing — all the kinds of printing that make up graphic arts. We usually take all these things for granted — newspapers, circulars, printed fabrics, milk bottles, cereal boxes, labels, cartons, etc. However, we cannot afford to ignore them. They are a mark of a civilized society.

One of the aims of general education is to produce mature people who can successfully fit into their society. In order to do this, they must understand something of the world in which they live. They must be able to communicate with individuals and with society in general.

In a sense, all of the graphic arts may be considered communicative. However, even though lamp-shade designs and calico cloth may have "something to say," they are not specifically considered as communication. It is really newspapers, magazines, leaflets, billboards, greeting

cards, letters, and the like that carry messages.

A literate person can read these things, but that isn't enough. It takes education in the graphic arts to fully understand them — how they were done and why they were done. A person with monochromatic vision could see a flower and recognize what it was. But in order to enjoy it fully, he must see it in color and be able to smell it. Then he fully realizes what it is. So in order to know what graphic processes mean, the intelligent citizen must understand them; blind acceptance is not enough. It is through a well-balanced general education program that this is accomplished.

Industrial arts means understanding and using the arts in an industrial society — the society in which we live. Graphic arts is an integral and inseparable part of industrial arts, so there should be no question of "fitting it in." It would be justified even on the basis of an aid to the understanding of the application of graphic arts, as has been discussed.

However, there are other sides to it. There is practical application, in the case of printing, letter press or offset. Many jobs may open up because of an interest in and aptitude for lay-out and typographic design. However, the vocational aspect is not stressed.

Creativity and self-expression are found in graphic arts to such an extent that many phases can be called fine arts. Engraving, etching, and block-printing are ancient media, employed by craftsmen and artists for centuries. Today much experimentation in lithography is being done by artists. Silk screen printing, serigraphy, as it is called by artists, is coming into its own as a means of expression.

These various processes offer an unlimited field. Through them, the student may express himself — a basic urge in everyone. They serve as avenues for a vital force, creativeness.

—Gale Little
Alabama College

The Place of International Relations in the High School

"These are times which try men's souls." Those words from a proud chapter in American history once again haunt the peoples of the world. The United States faces a future overshadowed by an air of crisis which will not soon disappear. But as the people make vital decisions at the polls and through public opinion, their thinking is burdened by confusion and ignorance concerning the grave social and political issues confronting the nation. Failure to solve them would divert the tremendous industrial potential of modern society toward the production and use of nuclear weapons. This would almost certainly lead to mass annihilations of populations and stunt cultural development on every side, if indeed, it is not destroyed altogether.

It is unfortunate and perilous that man has progressed so far technologically while yet he behaves in his social conduct as did his ancestors in geological ages past who waged barbaric warfare against each other with sticks and stones. Today the world is balanced uneasily on the brink of disaster. No longer can man afford to give vent to his pugnacious inclination toward war. It is neither a localized affair nor a contest to be fought with spears and stones. Failure to recognize this will grip the world in the throes of a nuclear war and hurl civilization back into another decadent period not unlike the Middle Ages.

However, to forecast is to go beyond the faculties of mortal man who works and understands only in terms of the present. Of the destiny of America in the present struggle with the forces of totalitarianism, we know little since much depends upon the actions and attitude of the Russian bloc and upon the will of the Creator. But that is not to deny the American citizen any part in shaping the destiny of his homeland. In the realization that every major foreign policy decision must in the end meet with the approval of the sovereign people, each individual is vested with the responsibility of using critical thinking in giving or denying support to the foreign policies and international relations as carried on by his government. Today over 70% of the people in America are dissatisfied with the progress of the United Nations. Yet hardly half of the people surveyed showed a clear understanding of the functions and

organization of the United Nations. They prefer to listen and accept the distorted ideas peddled by special interests who would undermine a sound foreign policy for the nation.

Though statesmen and educators have seldom regarded it as being significant, perhaps the intelligent education of high school students in international relations will insure a more secure future for America and for the world than is presently forecast. For as Coleridge once said: "And in today walks tomorrow."

Even if this be true, the present can scarcely offer more than a ray of hope because issues connected with international relations as they affect foreign policy are shunned more often than not in the high school either because they are "controversial" or the teacher feels his students do not have the mature judgment to understand the complicated issues involved and to formulate judgments.

No one would deny that the most important single factor in the life of every American is what happens in the realm of foreign affairs from day to day. Fifty years ago this probably was not so. But as the United States has grown stronger and as the world has shrunk in size, the situation has changed. But the social studies curriculum has not been altered to take account of this important development. To this day international relations as a subject remains neglected as a part of the high school social studies program even though it is so vital to the students' welfare and hardly without exception commands their attention. In a very real sense the quality of training on issues connected with the international situation which is given young America will affect the destiny of our nation. How long will we neglect this vital part of citizenship education in our schools?

—Terrell Wayne Bailey
University of Florida

Opportunities for Guidance in Physical Education

Physical education offers unlimited opportunities for the guidance of students. This is one of the main reasons for choosing physical education as my professional field. I feel that as a physical education

teacher I can be a real friend and influence to girls and will be able to help them with the problems confronting them at adolescence.

Paramount in the opportunities for guidance in physical education is the close student-teacher relationship. Frequently the physical education teacher can establish rapport when it is impossible for anyone else to do so; the relationship is a more personal one than in the average classroom. Because of the wide variety and freedom of activities the physical education teacher sees the student in situations and from aspects not seen by other teachers. In the unguarded moments of activity the student reveals herself as she has a chance to open up and "let her hair down." In observance of the student in these situations the teacher may detect many problems of emotional and social adjustment.

Physical education offers opportunity for guidance through the very nature of its activities. Students may play out their anti-social feelings and through this medium resolve many of their problems with the release of tension. Within games and sports are the potentialities for developing self-direction and self-discipline. Along with the freedom of the activity is a corresponding sense of responsibility. The student realizes her own actions are important to the group, that it is she who missed the basket or she who fumbled the dance step. By the same token she is more tolerant when her friend lets her down in a tight foursome, or makes a careless pass. She learns to control her actions and emotions in error or defeat as she learns the meaning of sportsmanship. The student finds her place in the group as she gains the "we" feeling or team spirit. Another student who will find a place will be the academically slow learner who finds a place for achievement.

Besides the inevitable guidance derived from the example of the teacher and through the physical activities there is opportunity for direct guidance. The close student-teacher relationship becomes a channel for personal counseling. When the teacher becomes a friend of her students they will be drawn to her with their problems. She will not be able to counsel all the problems encountered, but she should have some knowledge of the counseling process. She must know which problems she can talk over with the student and the kinds of deep-seated problems to be referred to one trained in guidance. The teacher, however, can always listen if nothing else, for often all the students need is a chance to unload their troubles or "let off steam" to someone who

will not be horrified nor condemn, but who will listen patiently.

An opportunity for guidance not to be overlooked is through the health aspect of physical education. Health examinations for participation in physical activities may be followed up as a guidance experience to give the girls a better understanding of their bodies. A health or sex education class may also be a means for group guidance.

The physical educator must take advantage of these and the many opportunities too numerous to mention if she is to accomplish her goal—to help her girls develop their fullest potentialities for character and citizenship.

—Sylvia Smith
Mercer University

Communications: The Other Half

The task assigned to and the challenge laid before the high school English teacher in America today is that of instructing students in the broad and general field labeled "communications." More specifically, this field is composed of the four necessary interwoven segments of writing, reading, speaking, and listening, all of which are important and all of which must play a vital role in the development of the English curriculum. According to a survey made by P. T. Rankin of the Chicago Schools, the average individual spends nine per cent of his time in writing, sixteen per cent in reading, thirty per cent in speaking, and forty-five per cent in listening. Obviously, then, high school students must be led toward the development of their ability to speak coherently and to listen constructively, as well as to write correctly and to read intelligently. Obviously, the study of effective and creative speaking and listening must be given as concentrated attention as is the development of techniques in writing and reading. Yet, in how many classes are students instructed in correct methods of speaking and listening? In how many classrooms is an equal amount of time devoted to the four methods of communication? How often is "the other half" of communications given its share of importance and granted its degree of study?

Too often teachers are concerned predominantly with the way in

which students read "Julius Caesar" and write a paper on William Shakespeare, with the way in which they struggle through *A Tale of Two Cities* and write a summary of its plot. Too seldom do they encourage students' participation in panel discussions of the play or teach correct methods of listening to a pupil's report on another Dickens novel. Too often students passively hear, but do not actively listen to, the lectures of teachers or the reading of a poem. Too infrequently does each pupil in a classroom enter interestedly into an open discussion of reactions toward, opinions concerning, and evaluations of a selection under consideration.

Countless opportunities for oral work in the classroom arise from the study of literature and composition. Class discussions, symposiums, reports, definitions, the giving of directions, the telling of stories, dramatizations, choral readings, and spontaneous recitations all are outgrowths from the typical course routine. In each of these ways, students may be led to the development of correct and effective oral expression; by all of these methods, pupils may learn to speak easily and unhesitatingly and to convey their thoughts accurately.

Likewise, by making use of opportunities in listening which appear daily in the lives of high school youngsters, the teacher may establish constructive patterns of listening in each of his students. By spending time in discussing the content and organization of speeches, the order of presentation of arguments, the evaluation of fact and opinion, and the gleaning of significant statements, a teacher may make talks and conversations far more meaningful and interesting for his students. Through listening, a teenager learns much; through listening attentively, he learns even more; through listening creatively, he learns most of all — not only about the opinions of others but also about his own thoughts and beliefs as an individual.

In a democratic nation, where the future of the country and the happiness of the inhabitants depend on the opinion of citizens collectively and the expression of opinions individually, teachers of English must realize their responsibility to teach effective patterns of speaking and listening to their students. As a result of this realization, they must devote adequate amounts of class time to "the other half" of the field of communications.

—GENEVIEVE GUARDIA
Agnes Scott College

Poetry *Can* Be Taught in High School

It seems to be a fairly common belief among teachers of English that high school students detest poetry. Some even claim that their pupils gain no values whatsoever from reading poetry. Yet we continue to include poetry in our curricula for reasons too numerous to be included here. Obviously, perennial teaching of poetry demands a constant search for methods of presenting it that will stimulate student interest.

Just how much knowledge of poetic theory and terminology is necessary to the enjoyment and appreciation of poetry by high school students has been a moot question among English teachers for quite some time. Those who have deemed the structure of the poem the important thing have subjected their pupils to such a maze of literary nomenclature that, on quitting school or completing their formal education, they never want to read another line of poetry. At the other extreme stand those teachers who, considering the meaning of a poem the only item of any worth, treat poems as stories and point out none of their distinguishing characteristics.

Somewhere between these two poles can be found those teachers who believe strongly in introducing to their students only those mechanics which will be most valuable in developing a better understanding and deeper appreciation of the poems they read so that they may make their lives richer and fuller. This middle-of-the-road policy rests upon the assumption that, just as a person can better understand a great musical composition if he knows something of its structure, so a student of poetry can better comprehend the poem as an imitation of life if he knows how the diction, figures of speech, and verse form contribute to the poem as a whole.

In using this analytical approach to understanding poetry, one does not pick a poem to pieces but rather notes the contribution of each element to the finished poem. A student does not memorize, "A metaphor is a figure of speech in which a term is applied to something to which it is not literally applicable." Instead he talks about such expressions as "the fog comes in on little cat feet," "the silken-sharp thunder," and "silent as thought in evening contemplation weaves the bat under the gathering stars;" and by examining the contribution of such figures of speech to individual poems, he comes to understand

what a metaphor or a simile is and what it does.

Perhaps no two teachers could ever exactly agree concerning the technical terms that should be introduced during the study of poetry. However, it would seem that any term which is innate to the particular poem currently being discussed is appropriate but that no term should be dragged in simply because the teacher happens to know it. A simile or an anapestic foot is of no importance in itself but attains significance only because of the part it plays in the structure of the poem.

This analytical approach to poetry is no panacea, for it has merit only when it is used to help students understand how poetry is constructed. If it becomes merely a process of disassembly instead of one of analysis followed by synthesis, it is all but worthless.

—Bettie Worthington
Southwestern at Memphis

A Novice's Consideration

As the writer prepares for the teaching of history, he finds himself plagued with the many doubts and misgivings which all beginners, doubtless, contend with. Despite the seeming consolation of knowing many have weathered this same storm, he is still disturbed by some trends in our society today. Perhaps the main source of annoyance comes from the ever-increasing group who would agree with that much quoted statement of the father of mass production, Henry Ford, who said "History is bunk." After much contemplation concerning this philosophy, the writer is forced to denounce it as unsound in light of recent events and the present world situation.

Indeed, if one would take the time for a little investigation into past events of the world's history, he would discover that our present situation bears remarkable similarity to some earlier times. As the Far Eastern Area presents an ever increasing problem to our country, we hear loud cries from one group, who call for war with China. These are opposed by a more conservative element, who point out that as China was never completely subdued by Japan; how could we hope for success? To many this seems a problem without precedent, but the

writer would call your attention to *The History of the Peloponnesian War*, by Thucydides. Here we discover that the Athenians were debating whether or not to send an expedition to subdue Sicily. Nicias, an Athenian General, opposed this expedition by pointing out that Sicily was a populous and distant land. He said that even if the Athenians were victorious, they would not be able to maintain their dominion. Nicias summed up by saying that it would be foolish to attack a land which could not be secured by conquest. Thus, we see that the Athenians were struggling with a problem which was somewhat like our own. Thucydides also provides, in this work, a description of the speech of Alcibiades who favored the expedition. Alcibiades describes the Sicilian cities as populous, and inhabited by a mixed multitude who would readily give up their old forms of government. This description sounds much like that of some Asian cities which we hear today from certain sources.

It is also interesting to note that while the Greek city states fought the Peloponnesian war, weakening each other, Rome grew to become dominant over all of them. This situation has been somewhat paralleled in our age by the growth of United States influence and leadership over the war weakened countries of Western Europe.

This writer does not contend that the sighted events prove that history repeats itself, but he does believe it shows that history certainly doesn't fall into the "Bunk" category. To those who think of history as being out of place in the modern school curriculum, he would offer the consideration that the study of history will provide a better understanding of our present situation and a possible help in avoiding the mistakes of our predecessors.

—James R. Aldridge
Millsaps College

My Decision to Teach Mathematics

The study of mathematics has always been the joy of my school days. Even in high school, I was eager for the class period to arrive so I could learn something new in algebra or geometry. I suppose it was in high school that I first began to realize my love for the subject. It seemed

that the manipulation of numbers and their application to every day life had some strange fascination for me.

This love of mathematics continued in college as I climbed higher and higher into the realm of a more advanced form of mathematics. It led me to select a pre-engineering course in which mathematics played a major role. Having finished the sophomore year, I left school for employment with an oil and gas field supply company. The outbreak of the Korean conflict was responsible for my recall to active duty with the army and thus I obtained educational benefits under the G. I. Bill that resulted in my return to college and, in due time, I secured a Bachelor of Science in mathematics, with minors in chemistry and physics.

It was during my junior year in college that I first saw the possibility of teaching mathematics. However, at that time, I only gave it a passing thought. The possibility became more real to me during my senior year when I had the honor of being selected as a Carnegie Fellow for the school year of 1954-1955. I had hardly dared to hope for the possibility of the educational advantages that this award brought me. In my opinion this, combined with my love for the subject, was the major factor in my decision to teach mathematics.

This being an era in which more and more emphasis is placed on science and the comforts that its applications can bring to our every day living, I consider mathematics as having an even greater part in our future than it has in our past. I cannot help but realize the grave danger that faces this nation of ours if we do not challenge and train our youth to carry on the position that mathematics have obtained today, and to inspire them to even greater heights. If we fail to do this, our nation faces total destruction from the inability to supply trained men for the great scientific age in which we are now living.

The mathematics teachers of our elementary and secondary schools have the all important task of giving to their students an understanding of the major role that mathematics plays in daily living. Students showing an interest and ability in mathematics should be given all the encouragement and help possible.

This is the challenge that faces our present instructors of mathematics. I hope to soon become a part of those who are giving of their talents to meet this challenge. Taking into account my background in mathe-

matics, I consider it an obligation to the youth of our land to accept this challenge to the best of my ability.

—E. Wolfe Hampton
Lincoln Memorial

What Are We Trying to Do?

Just what are we, as teachers of Social Studies, trying to do? In answer to this question, there are those who will begin speaking of disciplines, "bodies of knowledge" and the historical method; while others will mutter some cliches about "educating the whole child" and "meeting the needs of the students." And neither group will admit to the value of the ideas of the other.

Actually, all of these things are included, or should be included, in what we are trying to do. There would be no excuse for a public school system that was not designed to meet the needs of the students; our viewpoint would be tragically narrow if we did not aim at educating the whole child; and yet, without some body of knowledge, with what are we to educate him? What will meet the student's needs if it is not some specifics which can be gained by a knowledge of applicable facts? And how will the student continue to broaden himself after high school without some tools of his own which might be called "historical method"?

How, then, can all this be achieved? Shall we use the "subject matter" method or the "problems approach"? This, again, is an unnecessary division of a single broad method which could, if used properly, be a very satisfactory one. We should use the "subject matter" approach, and we should use the "problems" approach."

Of what benefit are the problems without the facts to solve them? What good is the subject matter without a practical application for the student? When the subject matter of history, economics, geography and government ceases to be of utmost importance, let us discard it. But this time has not come yet, nor will it in the foreseeable future. And when we no longer need to relate this subject matter to real and current problems in order to meet the student's needs, let us discard this

method, too. But this will occur only at the same time that the subject matter loses its importance.

Let us not sell out completely to either side. It is too easy to embrace every good new idea that comes along to the exclusion of all that has been proved good in the past. Instead, good new ideas should be incorporated into what we already have, and our old methods should be revised when necessary. The introduction of the "problems method" and the idea of "meeting the needs of the student" do not call for us to discard the use of subject matter as the framework around which the Social Studies are built.

—Robert R. Anderson
Millsaps College

Why Geometry?

The aim of education is to provide the child with instruments which will enable him to approach his present and future problems of life with a fair confidence in his ability to handle them.

Geometry may more effectively equip the child to solve a greater number and more varied types of problems than any other course. The pupil profits in at least three significant ways from the study of geometry.

First, he learns the basic propositions and their applications. Geometry was named for its connection with the measurement of land. Long before Euclid and Thales, geometrical concepts were being passed on by builders and surveyors. Certainly every high school graduate will not be a builder or surveyor, but each will live in a dwelling of some sort, if only a prism-shaped tent, and each will have some connection with land, at least indirectly. Understanding cultivates appreciation and appreciation leads to content.

Secondly, he acquires a working knowledge of deductive proof. From frequent practice in the proof of theorems, the student carries over the habit of precise and succinct reasoning, of logical organization of ideas, and logical memory. This transfer of learning is probably the most important gain for many geometry pupils. This aspect of geometry

benefits both the pupil entering college and the one who terminates his formal education with high school.

Thirdly, he acquires a better understanding of the world around him. Plato said "God eternally geometrizes." The geometry pupil gains a greater insight into the mathematical order of the Universe in his awareness of the geometry in nature: snowflakes, mineral crystals, stones and shells, trees, honeycombs, spider webs and the many other objects where a pupil acquainted with geometry can see its inherent nature in familiar places. In addition to deeper appreciation of his environment, he develops a keener spatial perception and can envision the geometric paths of the nebulae and courses of the planets and comets thus better understanding the relationship of the earth to the rest of the universe.

While these are probably the most significant benefits of a course in geometry, they are by no means the only ones. Geometry is, without a doubt, one of the most profitable courses offered in the high school curriculum.

—Betty Donath
Union College

The Why of Education

In these modern days of educational psychology and statistics, the emphasis upon techniques in education has developed to a new intensity. Educators have hailed state level requirements of a certain number of hours of being exposed to this methodology as one of the greatest steps forward since the birth of Horace Mann. This may be true. Although it is considered a sign of obsolete thinking to point to ancient values in the realm of education, it seems to this student that there is one idea which was utilized by the educators of old which could be reconsidered with some profit.

Many years ago, the student did not say he was studying physics or engineering or English; he said that he was studying *with* a certain man. This man, this *teacher*, was not concerned with the multitude of techniques to which the modern teacher has sworn such faithful allegiance. This man "taught" by living in that unique manner which

vividly declared that the life of a scholar was the good life. This teacher's life was an invitation to the student. The student was invited not to study the subject, but to study the man.

Today we are warned against those methods that will produce rote learning on the part of the student. We as teachers are challenged with the idea that "learning" is really a personality modification. This personality modification is evidenced, we are told, by a change in behavior patterns — particularly along socially acceptable designs. The cliche concerning educating the *whole* student is constantly presented to us. Vicarious learning is being replaced by *real* experience.

These valuable concepts give us only the tools with which we may bring the student into contact with wisdom. Psychologists have presented us with the "how" of education. They have not given us the "why" of education.

Some of us may remember a rare contact with a teacher that offered us a "why." He did not offer it from the textbook or from a field trip, but with his own spontaneous *living*. His life defined the difference between good teaching and *great* teaching. His hope for the student was not a particular personality modification into a human organism with social talent. His goal was to assist the student to develop into what he potentially could be. His wish was for the student to increase his size of wisdom. The student approached his own potential because he was associated with a man who, above all things, was himself.

The "how" of education is necessary, but the "why" of education is more necessary. The idea of studying with a teacher has lost its popularity but not its validity.

—B. S. Tillinghast, Jr.
Wofford College

How Many *Extras?*

Or: Sanity for the Young Teacher

Our youngsters come to the public school to gain a little "book-learning" . . . and some "*life*-learning," too. The teacher comes to school to engage in something of the same thing, on the giving and

aiding end more than on the receiving. That sums up our schools—or *does* it? This United States is full of institutions that include a good deal more than the bare essentials of the "three R's." Both the student and the teacher are surrounded with and are expected to take active parts in a program that extends well beyond the classroom: the realm of the so-called "extracurricular." Certainly no one will argue with an assertion that many of these "extra" activities, really "extras" when the term was coined, have now reached the status of essentials for a major part of the school population.

Realizing the importance of this part of the school program that goes beyond mere curriculum, the young teacher is faced with an important question: to what extent can and should the inexperienced teacher engage in such activities in her first teaching position? Undoubtedly, the answer is partially an individual one; but there are several general statements that can be guides for all of us freshmen in the teaching profession.

A teacher is hired explicitly to teach a specific group of children all that he can about a particular field of study; implicitly; he is hired to excite young minds, to help characters develop by instilling moral awareness, and to awaken youth to the difficulties of adult life. All of this interaction of teacher and pupil is to take place between the hours, roughly, of 8:00 A. M. and 4:00 P. M. during five days a week. For a good many other hours during the week the teacher must be making plans that will have a direct bearing upon how successful he is when he is literally "on the job." Undoubtedly, the teacher's *first* responsibility is to his pupils and to the special block of time during which he works with them. To fulfill that responsibility he must have time to rest and time to plan.

Even though the teacher is not hired specifically to engage in anything beyond what has been mentioned, he knows when he accepts a position that there will be certain things which he will be "expected" to handle that he cannot gracefully refuse. He can make allowances for those activities when he is planning his life, but he cannot make allowances for the demands that go beyond even these. That is the point at which the inexperienced teacher, who *must* spend a great deal of his time in preparation for his classes and in getting adjusted to them, should take a

look at himself and his capabilities, at his community and its demands, and decide when to start saying "no."

Unfortunately, the teacher has been stereotyped as a "public slave." He is the superhuman creature who will, *of course*, teach Sunday School, take over the Cub Scouts, be program chairman of the P. T. A., sponsor the dramatic club, serve on the building committee, help organize the teen club, and so on and on. Unfortunately, too, the inexperienced young teacher, strong of back and sometimes naively idealistic, is especial prey (in a good many cases) for older, well-meaning, but misguided citizens. No doubt all too many young teachers have found themselves within six months after they first entered a classroom door with literally no time to call their own and with such limited time for preparation that their classwork suffered.

I am not saying that the teacher's life should consist only of his specific job, broad though it may be, and that otherwise he should be a hermit. The teacher is a member of a community *and* an individual at the same time that he is a schoolteacher. He has a responsibility to each capacity that he must never forget. I *am* saying that there are physical and psychological limits to what an individual can do; and if the teacher's school and home communities fail to recognize those limits, then he must set them up himself. When he decides upon the limits within which he can maintain a well-balanced, healthy, and active life for his first year in teaching, he can then decide when he will say "no" and when "yes." Perhaps he may offend a few people in the process, but if he learns to say *no* firmly but tactfully he will be blessed. Later, with the acquiring of skills and confidence in his basic job, and with careful planning allowing for more "free time," he may be able to broaden his limits. In the meantime he is learning to be a sane, satisfied, and reasonably *rested human being*. He may even, in fact, be accomplishing the feat of getting himself known as John Howard, individual, rather than Mr. Howard, "the new English teacher at West High."

So, young teacher, choose wisely, work well, and live your life with time for others *and* for yourself!

—Virginia Morrison
Woman's College,
University of North Carolina

Sources of a Philosophy of Education

CLIFTON L. HALL
George Peabody College for Teachers

A rarely successful attempt by a loyal alumnus to celebrate his affection for his college is Quiller-Couch's *Alma Mater*. The first two lines,

> Know you her secret none can utter?
> Hers of the Book, the tripled Crown?[1]

identify their author as an Oxford man. The open book surrounded by three crowns is a familiar sight on the title page of books published by the Oxford University Press and its symbolism goes back to medieval times.

Whoever he was, the designer of the Oxford coat-of-arms managed to express with four symbols the whole philosophy of the institution as it was in the first centuries of its existence. The book with its seven seals stands for the seven liberal arts: the *Trivium* made up of grammar, rhetoric, and dialectic, and the *Quadrivium* of arithmetic, astronomy, music, and geometry. Among these seven subjects, the dialectic of the *Trivium* was the chief interest of the medieval student. The curriculum in Arts came to include also the three philosophies, moral, physical, and metaphysical, as symbolized by the three crowns. Here was a philosophy made up of logic, ethics, and metaphysics, together with the ancestor of the "natural philosophy" that our grandfathers studied. It is scarcely necessary to add that the principal foundation for this was the writings of Aristotle, Pliny and Elder, Seneca, etc., all tempered by the Christian revelation as recorded in the four gospels. The philosophy of such a type of education was implicit in it and formed the greater part of its substance. It was authoritarian, being based on the wisdom of the ancients. No educational philosophy of subsequent times has ever been quite so direct and clear-cut, and for understandable reasons.

The word "philosophy" is too common and too loosely used today,

[1] F. Brittain, *Arthur Quiller-Couch* (New York: Macmillan, 1948) p. 11.

although its very etymology should serve as a warning. The fact is well known that it comes from the Greek and means simply "the love of wisdom." There is a suggestion of fitting modesty in this; the philosopher claims to be no more than a seeker of wisdom. He does not profess to have it all in his possession. In the words of Hazlitt, "Kings love power, misers gold, women flattery, poets reputation — and philosophers truth, when they can find it."[2]

In seeking knowledge philosophers use several methods. They have never agreed that any one method is superior to all others; they have usually manifested strong preferences and are sometimes classified in textbooks according to the one they prefer. Every method has had its distinguished advocates, so much so that the beginning student of philosophy may be somewhat overwhelmed and confused as he reads one impressive roll-call after another.

It is also important to note that the eager devotee of one method is apt to underestimate the importance or to question the validity of others. Legend has it that, when Galileo announced his discovery of the sun-spots, one of his contemporaries wrote to reassure the worried, "Don't be alarmed. Quiet your fears. I have read Aristotle through three times and nowhere does he mention spots on the sun. You may be assured that there are no such." This story has been told a great many times and it usually evokes condescending smiles (if not yawns of boredom) from the hearers. Yet in fairness it must be observed that that ancient Aristotelian had no doubts about the soundness of his position and his statement was made in complete intellectual honesty — according to his lights. He preferred to rely on authority rather than on empirical investigation. His method was that of authority and he stuck to it, regardless of what other methods might reveal.

Precisely the same attitude is reflected today when anyone refuses to give serious consideration to claims of supernatural revelation in such matters as morals and religion on the ground that science discovers nothing of the supernatural. To the fifteenth century authoritarian, that which was not found in the writings of Aristotle could not be; to the modern 100 per cent experimentalist, that which cannot be examined and checked scientifically is beneath notice.

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[2] *Winterslow* (London: Grant Richards, 1902) p. 162.

Statements of this second position are not hard to find. Dewey has provided several. For instance: "The mind of man is being habituated to a new method and ideal: There is but one sure road of access to truth — the road of patient, cooperative inquiry operating by means of observation, experiment, record and controlled reflection."[3] A sweeping statement, to say the least! The phrase "but one sure road of access to truth" leaves small room for any other method; it contains some rather strong words also. Yet Dewey can be even more sweeping, as when he says, "Mankind now has in its possession a new method, that of cooperative and experimental science, which expresses the method of intelligence."[4] This may recall a comment by the late Frederick Breed, made with reference to another of Dewey's broad statements but equally pertinent here: "To forget momentarily that the meek shall inherit the earth is a common human frailty."[5] The assertion that one particular method is "the method of intelligence" is surely a bit less than flattering to those philosophers who have favored other methods. Yet, in spite of the element of question-begging contained in it, the phrase has been repeated in season and out by writers on education of the experimentalist persuasion. Many appear to think that it disposes once and for all time of the claims of all other philosophers.

Even in our scientific twentieth century there are plenty of distinguished philosophers who are by no means convinced that the scientific method is the "one sure road" — highly intelligent men, all of them. Jacques Maritain, possibly the greatest of the neo-Thomists, is an orthodox Catholic; to him the Christian revelation is true and important above all else. Henri Bergson, though not an orthodox religionist, was a thoroughgoing intuitionist. "Either there is no philosophy possible," he wrote, "and all knowledge of things is practical knowledge directed at the profit to be got out of them, or else philosophizing consists in placing oneself in the object itself by an effort of intuition."[6] This is the principal theme of Bergson's metaphysics. Benedetto Croce, farther even from religious orthodoxy than Bergson, pins his faith on two methods, that of intuition and that of rational thinking. "Knowledge

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[3] *A Common Faith* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1943) p. 32.
[4] *Liberalism and Social Action* (New York: Putnam, 1935) p. 83.
[5] *Education and the New Realism* (New York: Macmillan, 1939) p. 97.
[6] *La pensée et le mouvant* (Paris: Presses universitaries de France, 1950) p. 200.

has two forms: it is either *intuitive* knowledge or *logical* knowledge; knowledge obtained through the *imagination* or knowledge obtained through the *intellect;* knowledge of the *individual* or knowledge of the *universal;* of *individual* things or of the *relations* between them; it is the production either of *images* or of *concepts.*"[7]

The four men cited have been chosen because all belong to the twentieth century, all are of about equal stature as philosophers, and there is wide divergence among their beliefs as to what is sound philosophical inquiry. The list could be extended almost indefinitely if it were continued into the past and even wider divergences would be revealed.

For over thirty years most writings on educational philosophy in America have been based on the experimentalist method. There have been notable exceptions, but some variety of Deweyism has been taught in most of the large and widely publicized schools and colleges of education. The answer to the question "Is it scientific?" has served to approve or throw into discard many suggested educational ideas and practices.

But particularly since World War II, the undiscriminating application of this criterion has given rise to a good deal of doubt and uneasiness. Questions as to its universal validity are asked repeatedly, many by people from outside the ranks of the educators, but who know their philosophy nevertheless. Nobody objects to the use of scientific method in questions wholly concerned with the world of physical reality; where the laws of nature are operative and express the interrelationships of matter, "observation, experiment, record and controlled reflection" serve to increase man's control and will continue to do so. But has the event justified the cheerful faith of so many nineteenth-century folk that wider and wider applications of science would bring on the millennium unaided? Crime, war, and violent deaths in increasing number would seem to have some significance in our appraisal of the progress we have made in the past hundred years. Is the remedy for all these dismal happenings simply to cultivate the scientific method with increasing zeal and hope for the best? — in other words, to increase the fizz in the hope that something good will eventually be precipitated?

[7] *Aesthetic,* translated by Douglas Ainslie. (London: Macmillan, 1922) p. 1.

Or is there need for some other method or methods in the realm of specifically human affairs? If man were a mere physical and chemical event, an "organism" totally at the mercy of blind forces, science might in time be able to explain everything concerning him, fully and completely. But the fact has never been established that man is no more than this. In just about every age some people have so believed but many others, at least just as wise, have not been convinced. And a good many of the stubbornly unconvinced are today speaking out and seem to be finding increasingly larger and more receptive audiences.

Some of the greatest philosophers of all time have maintained, and continue to maintain, that man is more than a mere bit of the material world. They see him as endowed with a mind and a will, and not wholly at the mercy of the forces of nature. With Aristotle, they insist that he is "a rational animal." Not that he always behaves rationally, but that he is capable of so behaving and at his best and highest he does so. If man's "unconquerable mind" is his highest attribute and truly efficient, its efficacy verified whenever he sets his "will against the drag of the cosmos and by exertion of effort make(s) things other than Nature would have made them,"[8] the underlying philosophy for his education must surely have a wider basis than that of pure experimentalism. Maybe people in America are at present demanding just this.

The above question is a debatable one and, like all debatable matters, it will not be resolved by the adherents of each side ruling the other out by arbitrary definitions of what constitutes philosophic method. Yet some eminent philosophers have been guilty of this very practice. In the examples already given Dewey has christened his method "the method of intelligence," which puts other methods . . . where? In the same way Bergson boldly asserts that if "all knowledge of things is practical knowledge directed at the profit to be got out of them," (a clear and frank statement of the pragmatic method) then "there is no philosophy possible." Bergson would evidently agree with Robert Maynard Hutchins that pragmatism is an "unphilosophy."[9]

In view of so much radical disagreement among the recognized authorities, the educator might be well advised to proceed with caution in building his educational philosophy and to refrain from committing

[8] James Bissett Pratt: *Eternal Values in Religion* (New York: Macmillan, 1950) p. 39.
[9] *The Conflict in Education* (New York: Harper's, 1953) p. 53.

himself entirely to any one method without first examining as thoroughly and objectively as possible the claims of others. All these have their able champions at some time or other, and the one which seems to be prevalent today may be under something of a cloud tomorrow. The experimentalist position was far more assured fifteen years ago than it has been since. In fact, there are numerous indications that a new philosophy is now taking shape in American education and that it will differ in many ways and quite widely from that which was so generally and unquestioningly accepted in the twenties and thirties.

The need for breadth and catholicity in philosophical study has been well summed up by John Cowper Powys: "The chief advantage of a wide reading in philosophy is that it gives one both the scepticism to stand up against every dogmatic claim and the imagination to treat with reverence and humility every original hint and illuminating suggestion."[10] Modern educational philosophy inherits nearly 3,000 years of attempts by the clearest and toughest minds to identify, clarify, and answer the great and persistent questions that thinking men have faced in every age. This philosophic heritage goes back, beyond Dewey, Bergson, Maritain, and Croce, to James, Hegel, Kant, Locke, Hume, Descartes, Thomas Aquinas and the other Scholastics, the Christian Fathers, Lucretius, Aristotle, and Plato, to mention only some of the greatest names. Dogmatic claims aplenty can be found in the writings of most of these men, likewise a wealth of original hints and illuminating suggestions. If he is wise, the educational philosopher will strive to understand this legacy before he proposes to brush it lightly aside.

[10] *The Meaning of Culture* (New York: Norton, 1939) p. 23.

Why A Doctoral Candidate Should Choose His Own Research Problem

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Directors of research at the doctoral level are not in agreement as to who should be the primary person in the selection of a doctoral research problem: the director or the doctoral candidate. I am among the group who feel that the candidate should be the primary person. My reasons for casting my lot with this group are as follows:

1. *The doctoral candidate should experience the feeling of wanting to solve a research problem and of completing it.* Contrast the situation in which the doctoral candidate is asked to conduct a particular research problem with one in which the candidate feels a need for solving a problem, scattered aspects of which have concerned him for some time. If the director of research does all the preliminary thinking for the candidate and then merely tells the candidate that that is the problem for him to solve, the director is depriving the candidate of an experience that can be the climatic experience of the candidate's formal education. Specifically, the candidate is deprived of narrowing the research problem to the point where solution is possible for him within a reasonable amount of time, a process which causes him to become thoroughly familiar with the entire problem area before he can make delimitations. Not only must he know thoroughly the "soil" from which his research problem is taken but he must also know the conditions, facts, and situations which form the basis for the statement of his research problems. If the candidate is to become master of the area in which his research problem falls and to see the relationship of his study to the area, he must have the foregoing experience.

Furthermore, the candidate likes to feel that his ideas and suggestions are of some value and that the director is there to guide him into wise selection of a problem, not to tell him what problem must be solved specifically. In whatever endeavor we undertake, we achieve and prog-

ress best when the project has been the product of *our* thinking. Likewise with the doctoral candidate. He is likely to attack the problem with more enthusiasm if it is one in which he has considerable interest rather than one the director feels should be solved. The fact is that the candidate will spend a year or two planning and outlining the research problem, collecting and processing data, and writing the report. A year or two is a long time to spend on one subject if he is not deeply interested in it. When obstructions and difficulties cross the path of the candidate in the course of solving the problem or in writing the report — and they do for all or the big majority of candidates — discouragement and despondency develop and very likely result in a situation difficult for the director to handle. Silently the candidate berates the director if progress is not what was expected; and gradually the entire experience becomes negative, to the point that the candidate hopes desperately for its termination instead of experiencing enjoyment as the solution is realized and the report prepared.

Sometimes I wonder how many candidates who throw up their hands in despair and never complete the study undertaken fall into the group of having been "given" research problems. Those of us who direct or assist in the direction of research at the doctoral level would do well to analyze the circumstances of inactive candidates and of candidates who progress slowly and who exhibit a distaste for the task at hand. Did they select their research problems, or were they "asked" to take problems which the director felt should be completed in his department? Worse than having the candidate and his director part questionable friends is observing the candidate hopelessly dejected over the progress of his study or a stalemate.

2. *The candidate should know better than anyone else his abilities for and his interest in conducting certain kinds of research.* Carrying the doctoral research problem to completion does not make the candidate a research expert. Actually he has merely gotten his "feet wet." But in getting his feet wet, it is important that his interest in research be nurtured, not discouraged. The candidate's experience, then, should be enjoyable so that he will be encouraged to undertake further research.

To make the research experience a satisfying one for the candidate, the first step would be to allow the candidate to select a problem that

appeals to him and for which he has the necessary qualifications. Who knows better than the candidate the abilities he has and the zest with which he attacks various projects? Through eighteen years of academic course work, certain abilities were necessary if he was to be successful. Sometimes he achieved easily and sometimes not so easily. The stresses and strains, as well as the pleasant moments, should be rather fresh in his mind.

Studies which involve the use of advanced statistics; studies the data for which must be mostly or completely obtained in libraries; studies which are of a field nature and involve personal contacts with several people; historical studies, which involve the ability to write descriptively; or studies the data for which must be analyzed and processed from a maze of detail — each of these and others do not have the same appeal for all candidates. Although the candidate may have taken courses in advanced statistics, he may not be competent to handle a study highly statistical in nature; although his writing ability is at a level satisfactory for completing a research report, he probably should not become involved in a study which requires special writing ability, such as the ability to write descriptively in an historical study; and although he knows that data of some kind must be collected in order to solve the problem and that certain techniques must be used, he may not enjoy sitting hour after hour in a library, or conducting personal interviews, and would do well to select other than a library type study or a field study; and so on. The logical choice is a research problem for which the candidate is qualified to carry to completion and in which he has a sincere interest. The role of the director is to explain what skills and abilities are needed in completing successfully certain kinds of studies and to caution the candidate against making an unsatisfactory choice.

In conclusion, it appears that the main question to be answered relative to who is the primary person in the selection of a doctoral research problem is "For whom is the experience intended?" Obviously the answer is "For the candidate." The logical procedure, then, is for the candidate to select the research problem in which he has a vital interest and for which he has the qualifications to solve and to report in written form — under the guidance of the director.

Check Points for the Good Discussion Leader

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Adult discussion groups or classroom discussion sessions can be either enjoyable or agonizing. They are enjoyable if they are lively and interesting or agonizing if they are dull and routine.

However, the leader or the teacher shouldn't think that he has control over the results. For he as the leader sounds the keynote for the whole session.

There must be reasons why some discussions are a success while others are a failure. There must also be reasons why some leaders are successful while others are not.

The reasons why discussion groups are successful can be reduced to the ingredients which go into a good discussion. Both the beginner as well as the experienced leader or teacher can use this as a check list to see how he is doing.

Preparation and enthusiasm are the only ingredients which the group members supply themselves (although the leader has some control over the latter). But from this point on the quality of the discussion is left almost entirely in the hands of the leader.

Check points: Material of the discussion

1) *Did the leader or teacher introduce the subject of the discussion properly?* The introduction should narrow the subject down so that it can be embraced in the time alloted for the discussion period. Yet it should be broad enough to allow ample room for many diversified contributions by the members of the group.

2) *Does the leader ask questions which direct the discussion?* The answers to the questions which he asks must give the discussion unity and push it along so that it will seem to be getting somewhere. Questions

should follow logically. There ought not be abrupt transitions without proper notice.

3) *Does the leader keep the discussion on the track by controlling it so as to bring it back to the subject when it gets off on tangents?* Tangents may be all right for "breather" periods in the discussion or to establish closer rapport between the leader and the group. However, they should not be allowed to absorb the discussion or take away time which is needed to develop the subject.

The beginning leader may need some training in order to learn this technique. But it is an indispensable talent for the person who wants to be a successful discussion leader.

4) *Does the leader add needed subject material when it is lacking for a satisfactory continuation of the discussion?* The leader must know well the subject which is under discussion so that he will have the answers when there is a threat that the discussion will bog down for lack of factual knowledge on the part of the group.

5) *Does the leader draw the discussion together at intervals? Does he end the session in such a way that the group will know what it has accomplished?* Show the group where they have been by giving a summary and where they are going by giving direction.

Check points: Other matters

1) *Learn the names of members of the group as quickly as possible.* This gives the members of the group more confidence in the leader. Also, it will allow the discussion to proceed at a quicker tempo. This method is better than having to resort to attendance cards, and less impersonal than having to point at someone. For those leaders who have trouble learning names, perhaps a little time spent with memory aids which have been developed by psychologists will prove to be worthwhirle.

2) *Don't let a half a dozen members of the group carry the discussion.* Bring everyone into it, if possible. This is not an easy trick to accomplish! There is a strong pull in every discussion session to allow a few people to do all of the talking.

The reason for this is that these few are the best prepared, most interested in the subject, or, if it is a teaching situation, most motivated

toward obtaining a better mark in the course. But this tendency can be overcome if the leader or teacher resists calling upon these people and tries to push other members of the group to contribute.

3) *Does the discussion leader get everyone interested and thinking on the question?* This is a point which can be overlooked if the discussion leader calls on someone before asking his question. In my practice teaching days my supervising teacher put me on to the trick of solving this problem. First, pose the question—then hesitate—then call on someone. This procedure stimulates all of the members of the group to think for fear that they might be called upon.

4) *Does the leader refrain from insulting the members of the group and control circumstances which might lead to members insulting members?*

There is no black and white answer to this question because it is difficult to determine what constitutes an insult to different people. Furthermore, some teachers seem to think that a sort of half insult once in awhile is a good thing. Be this as it may, a good rule still seems to be to avoid insulting anyone under most circumstances. Also, try to prevent occasions arising where members of the group will insult other members.

Insults will make the injured person hostile, and will be detrimental to the spirit and atmosphere of the discussion session. Other things can be said which accomplish the same result and at the same time avoid the pitfalls of the insult.

5) *If it is a teaching situation, does the teacher refrain from recording marks during the discussion?* If the teacher doesn't, he may be inviting trouble. Students dislike this procedure. This again points up the benefits of knowing the group members by name and face so that the teacher will remember what each contributed to the discussion.

6) *Can the leader get the members of the group excited about the subject?* This is probably the most important point and might well have been placed first. If he can, then it is certain that he himself feels that the subject is vital and that it is something to be enthusiastic about. He will radiate this feeling to the group, and enthusiasm is catching.

7) *Does the leader pay compliments to the group at the proper time?* Everyone likes to be complimented for doing a good job. But such

little things are easily overlooked. Above all, however, the compliment must be sincerely given.

8) *Can the leader cover the mechanics and techniques of discussion leading with a relaxed and disarming manner which conceals?* The group should not be conspicuously conscious of the "mechanics" and "techniques" which are being used by the discussion leader. Their attention and interest ought to be focused entirely upon the subject.

Given an average group with average interest and enthusiasm, the leader who is guided by these check points will have successful discussions and an enjoyable time. Only by practice can these techniques be mastered. But it will be worth all of the effort that the person takes to learn, especially if he intends to make work such as this his career.

An ideal situation for learning discussion leading exists where the leader can conduct a discussion and have someone sit in who is well enough acquainted with discussion leading to be able to criticize and offer help.

A critique after each discussion session by the person who observed the leader will allow the leader the best opportunity for quick improvement. He should remember, of course, to practice the points which he is weakest in during the next session.

Amateur and Specialist in Industrial Democracy

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Considerable ego and an effort at rigidly defining terms would be necessary for one to try to set a specific date for the beginning of the industrial revolution. However, few persons fail to recognize that marked differences have come about in the lives of Americans since Washington was president, and there are few who do not realize that technological developments were significantly under way in England before much technical progress was made in this country—although in recent decades both the United States and Germany have surpassed England in several areas of scientific and technological development.

However, the growth of science and technology is not the only influence in Western Life that has contributed to increasing the range in vocational possibilities which individuals may contemplate. Knowledge has expanded in many spheres which seem considerably removed from the areas with which science is ordinarily thought to deal—i.e., history and government, economics, educational practice, domestic relationships, and possibly religion. In everal respects it is, nevertheless, the tools of investigation and analysis which science has developed, and a social attitude favorable to expanding man's knowledge about the world and the changes in mode of life which have accompanied new knowledge, that have helped pave the way for expanding knowledge in several areas which may seem to have only remote connections with science.

1. *Social assets of technical specialization and division of labor.*—The economics of mass production, price, and distribution in an industrial society have so clearly shown the advantages of vocational specialization and division of labor from the standpoint of producing material goods and of providing many kinds of service that there is no point here in trying to review the developments involved or to evaluate resulting contributions to human well-being. However, an initial recogni-

tion of such contributions seems essential to any effort at analysis concerning the present or potential influence on American civilization which by-products of specialization might have.

2. *Leisure time, amateur interests, and social integration.*—One outcome of technology and specialization has been a reduction in hours of labor for typically employed persons, with various forms of commercial recreation and other activities coming into existence to claim the resulting leisure time. In general, perhaps, hobbies constitute one of the less commercialized uses of leisure—although a great deal of business and advertising seems to have grown up around such hobbies as model airplanes, electric trains, and stamp collecting—or perhaps bridge playing.

One can become as specialized in his hobby life as in his vocational life. If he does so, he misses most of the socially and intellectually broadening values which avocations can provide. Specialization in leisure time activities has individual and social implications which are greatly different from the implications of specialization in gainful employment. The volume and unit cost aspects of mass production, in material goods and some types of essential services, will continue to afford strong social justification for extensive division of labor in these areas—whereas there is no comparable justification for specialization in hobby fields.

In an economy with a high degree of specialization in labor and in professional services most individuals come to look upon the job as a means of earning money to buy necessities—including recreation. Thus, for many people the "pay job" becomes a side issue, so far as enjoyment of life is concerned.

The hobby, or hobbies, should play a quite different role—both in individual life and in group structure. For the individual, hobbies and leisure-time activities should furnish the satisfactions and stimulate the manysidedness of interest which is in a limited way, attached to the vocation of handicraft days; but which the highly specialized employment and machine-tending of an industrialized economy have largely eliminated from gainful employment. Hobbies and other leisure-time activities are presumed to be engaged in because they are fun—that is, they constitute the actual spheres of human satisfaction, and are not merely

avenues for earning money with which to secure satisfactions. Since hobbies have this primary status, rather than the secondary status typically accorded gainful employment, hobbies should be looked upon from the individual's standpoint largely as means of broadening the personality and expanding intellectual horizons. Not much broadening or expanding is likely if an individual by volition, inertia, or drift becomes as narrow and specialized in his hobby and other avocational interests as our economic structure forces most people to become in their gainful employment. The individual who becomes narrow avocationally in the sense described, is missing a large part of the fun and life enrichment which a technological civilization makes possible through increased leisure time.

From the social standpoint leisure-time interests should reduce cleavages and strengthen the social structure by enabling individuals to develop amateur capacities in several fields. This potential for developing amateurs offers one way to increase the layman's acquaintance with numerous aspects of our socio-economic life. It is when the layman has extensive acquaintance as noted, that he is equipped to be intelligent as a consumer and competent to play an effective role concerning civic responsibilities.

3. *Illustrative areas of socio-individual responsibility and participation.*—The general idea of foregoing comment regarding amateur capacities and social integration might be clarified through illustration.

The person with considerable amateur capacity along mechanical lines, will be able to do more in repairing his automobile, radio, or electrical equipment, and probably more in making household repairs or repairing farm implements, than persons who are wholly illiterate in mechanical areas. Magazines, high school shop courses, and hobbies in "popular mechanics" fields have done much to develop amateur interests and capacities in mechanics—and have probably been important in developing the "do it yourself" movement that has recently infiltrated homebuilding and home maintenance. This movement seems marked if one compares the nature of the homebuilding boom of the last few years with that of the 1920's.

Inadequate knowledge and cooperation by patients, from both individual and public health standpoints, is often emphasized by phy-

sicians. Too many patients want to "place themselves completely in the hands of a physician"—and some physicians encourage complete resignation. Mental attitude and outlook are important aspects of most illnesses. Helpful attitudes are seldom based on turning entire responsibility over to others, but on developing the capacity and willingness to share responsibility. In regard to personal health this involves acquiring elementary knowledge concerning such areas as physiology, nutrition, exercise and fatigue, personal hygiene—and the development of habits based on such knowledge. In regard to public health it involves comparable knowledge concerning community sanitation, food supply, and the role of community health facilities such as community hospitals or clinics, and school health equipment. Persons who know the least about health are likely to spend least wisely concerning patent medicines and quack services on the individual basis, and least likely to be able to help in developing constructive health projects on a community basis. A healthy population demands informed and cooperative amateurs or laymen in the health field.

Individuals who know something about personal budgets and financial planning as related to such areas as earnings, loans, insurance, or investments are less likely to become the prey of loan sharks than individuals who are wholly ignorant in these areas. Some of the principles involved in monetary budgeting and fiscal planning apply generally—from the use of an allowance which parents provide for young children, through the financial problems of parents themselves, and on into the loan and fiscal policies of nations. At any point along the line, saving may reflect provision for future needs or it may reflect merely a low order of material possessiveness which characterizes the hoarder—borrowing may reflect insightful investment for future development or it may indicate the spendthrift. As the individual's financial problems become more complex, he can often profit by the advice of an expert, but if he turns his financial problems over entirely to a financial expert or specialist, he makes himself subject to the integrity, skill, and exploitation of that specialist. The citizen who knows nothing about public finance or national income in relation to public debt is likely to be misled by selfish politicians. Amateur acquaintances with fiscal and budgetary matters can help the individual know when he is being fairly treated, or when the state is economically sound.

Much of what is said about monetary budgeting applies also to the budgeting of one's time, energy, or other personal resources—except that many such resources cannot be replenished as readily as money.

Clergymen in some denominations maintain that there is too little lay or amateur participation in religious activity—in determining and carrying out church policy. Paid specialists are employed to conduct ceremonies, give sermons, sing in the choir, play the organ, and perform various other church activities. To quite an extent these developments are a result of "bigness" and "division of labor" in a specialized and technological culture. If a church has a large international organization, the number of specialists and the extent to which they become organized into a hierarchy increases. But as religious activity is turned over to specialists, clergymen of the kind noted maintain, the individual's interest and participation decline. The amateur who would preach or lead in prayer disappears—members of the congregation or parish become onlookers, much as persons at a movie. There is perhaps considerable variation among denominations in the respects noted, depending somewhat on the extent to which emphasis is placed on the responsibility and initiative of the individual in achieving his own religious values and satisfactions. But in final analysis the vigor of religious institutions depends on the support and participation of laymen.

In the broad aspects of government, it is the crux of democracy that laymen shall be sufficiently informed and interested regarding public issues that they can help make intelligent decisions. Political dictatorship is a situation in which matters of state have been turned over to a specialist. In this case the "specialist" is the person who is sufficiently crafty and ruthless to get control of the army and other instruments of physical force, and by force prevent the development of effective opposition. Whether the people during some crisis voted or similarly "granted" dictatorial powers to a leader is largely irrelevant. The point is that the people in general were unable or unwilling to participate effectively in government, and the responsibility involved came into the hands of "specialists." In a democracy such as the United States, people who are unwilling to become fairly well informed and active amateurs in politics have little reason to expect their democracy to endure. This point has been emphasized by American statesmen since the days of Washington and Jefferson.

For two decades there has been increasing effort to restore the amateur to important status with respect to public education. The role of the layman or amateur was apparent in the small district school—in providing school facilities, selecting teachers, and determining the curriculum. As schools and school systems became populous and complex, through growth of cities or through consolidation in rural areas, many specializations became parts of school practice—relating to such matters as organization and finance, teaching, personnel, curriculum, or play and recreation. With specialization came technical improvement in many school services. With it also came a decline of interest on the part of laymen—an increased feeling that parents should "turn their children over to the school" for care and education.

It is largely as a means of overcoming this disinterest and of reenlisting the help of parents and of the community as a whole in the school programs of children, that Parent-Teacher Associations have been organized. The same applies substantially to joint teacher-lay committees for developing music, health, playground, library, or other aspects of an expanding school program. In part the same applies to increased community uses of school facilities, and to school supervision or cooperation regarding projects carried on by students at home. Amateur or lay participation and cooperation in developing school building plans is now receiving special attention—as obsolescence of existing space and increases in school population make the demand for new buildings urgent, so that provision can be made for *all* the types of service which the school should render. Through broad lay as well as professional participation at the planning stage, it should be possible to avoid constructing buildings which are twenty years out of date when built—as has often happened in the past. This planning stage, during which the community decides what kind of a school it wants—what uses and services it expects from its building, should precede the employment of an architect.

The main point of foregoing illustrations is that the development of technology and specialization has resulted in the disappearance of the amateur in too large a measure. Scientific and technological progress, with accompanying specializations, makes it necessary for the functions of the amateur to change but not for him to disappear. In an important sense the amateur is the social cement which holds together the numerous

areas of specialty—that tend to produce social cleavages when there is no cement. If the common people cannot furnish this cement, through amateur capacities and lay interests, the background is set for a "strong man" to bring and hold the diverging elements together. A national crisis in some such form as strikes, economic depression and unemployment, or threat of war readily shows up the weakness of cleavages and helps make it easy for many persons to think a dictator of some kind is needed. Participation in government on a lay or amateur basis by the general run of common people, and similar participation in the many kinds of social and vocational activities which make up our social structure, is fundamental to the democratic concept of rule by the people. The necessary understanding, participation, and rule apply to all aspects of the social structure—not merely to those aspects labeled "government."

4. *Role of high school and junior college in developing amateur interests and competencies.*—In the general area of secondary education, considerable emphasis has been placed during the last two decades on civic education. This has largely been concerned with political issues, although educational programs have given increasing attention to vocational orientation and the developing of hobby and avocational interests, as well as to student adjustment and guidance in a broader sense. Perhaps in most high schools and junior colleges all of these areas deserve more emphasis than they receive.

Diversified Occupations programs in high school help some students become acquainted with the vocational world, but in most schools such programs reach only a small percent of the student body and the programs usually aim to produce sufficient competence in one vocation or on one specific job so that a student can readily hold a job of that particular kind. This does not develop a lay or amateur acquaintance with any substantial segment of the vocational world.

Probably the variety of part-time jobs which high school and college students hold, particularly in towns and cities, contribute more than schools along the lines of amateur vocational experience. Club activities, "short courses," organized in hobby or special interest fields, and the informal use of laboratory, shop, library, and recreational facilities at the school—by students alone or with persons who are not in school,

can offer fruitful avenues through which to develop amateur interests in several areas. This is particularly true where a school or junior college is conceived and functions as a community-service institution—with extensive lay use of the educational plant and equipment, and with the plant having been planned jointly by lay and professional leaders for general use by the community—as noted earlier.

To expect average Americans to develop a high level of amateur or lay competence in numerous fields, as implied in foregoing comments, might seem a big task. It is a big task. But the American people are better equipped for such a task than people anywhere else in the world. Americans have three major advantages over most peoples. (1) Technology has gone farther in producing leisure time for the individual here than in most countries. With extensive leisure, an individual can develop amateur learning and competence in several fields—under appropriate motivation and orientation. (2) The United States has a more comprehensive program for the education and development of its youth than has any other country. This program focuses in the high schools and junior colleges, and in a large measure radiates into the communities in which these institutions are located. In the United States, an educational institution of this level is more generally for the educational growth and service of the entire community in which it is located than is the case in most countries. Although more in the community service direction is needed, an important beginning has been made. (3) The average American has more of an experimental or "let's try it" attitude than average persons in most countries. Hence, as a whole Americans are less likely to be impressed with inhibitions, or with the idea that they "can't" do various things, than peoples in many parts of the world. The spirit of adventure, curiosity, or desire to try something new is important in the development of hobbies or amateur competence in fields outside one's vocation.

There is of course a limit to the extent to which any person can fruitfully spread his interests or his energies—whether in regard to vocation or avocation. But in the avocational field a high degree of perfection, so as to meet competition for a job as a means of earning a living, is not a controlling factor. Hence there may be ramification of cross-fertilization from one avocational field to another. Spread in avocational interest thus has desirability in a sense which seldom applies to

one's primary vocation. The same applies to shift in interest from one avocation to another.

Although the United States has advantages over most countries for developing amateur competencies as suggested, we could make more effective use of those advantages. Better coordination among the three areas of advantage noted would be an asset. But probably more important, and basic to utilizing the advantages, is a clearer understanding on the part of Americans in general of the importance of the competent and interested layman or amateur for the democratic conception of social relationships. When technology and specialization increase in the vocational world, as they do in an industrial society, more attention must be given to the competencies and interests of laymen on an amateur basis—as social cement to offset the splintering effect of specialization. Institutions with general or terminal functions in the education of American youth can render a great service in helping to develop the understanding indicated.

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Children's Literature

BULLOUGH, WILLIAM SYDNEY and BULLOUGH, HELENA. *Introducing Animals.* Crowell, 1954. 62p. $2.50.

Describing all important groups of the lower animals (invertebrates) with concise and interesting text and clear pen-drawings. Grouped as to "wriggling animals," "animals in armor," "six legs," "animals in shells," etc. For ages 10 and up.

CASTOR, HENRY. *Teddy Roosevelt and the Rough Riders.* Random House, 1954. 182p. $1.50.

One of the new Landmark series. Readable text; nice format.

CROUSE, ANNA and RUSSEL. *Peter Stuyvesant.* Random House, 1954. 184p. $1.50.

One of the new Landmark series. A well-written story confined to Stuyvesant's activities in New Amsterdam.

GIBSON, KATHERINE. *To See the Queen.* Longmans, 1954. 144p. $2.50.

This charming story of the young Princess Isabella of France, who feels that people mock her royalty and decides to run away and learn the art of a milkmaid. Lures the reader in a folktale manner into a real land of shepherds as well as into royal courts. Most worthwhile reading for the lover of tales of fancy.

GRIMM, JACOB. *Grimm's Tales.* Oxford Univ. Press, 1954. 142p. $3.75.

The delightful illustrations by Helen Sewell and Madeleine Gekiere leave just enough to the imagination.

LATTIMORE, ELEANOR FRANCES. *Diana in the China Shop.* Morrow, 1955. 128p. $2.25.

Diana's adventures in—and sometimes out of—her grandmother's old china shop in Charleston, S.C., and her growing sense of responsibility, make interesting reading for the younger girl. Miss Lattimore's appropriate and graphic illustrations complement her easy and appealing writing.

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SISTER MARY EILEEN and RANKIN, KATHERINE. *A Book of Gladness.* Ginn, 1953. 310p. $2.20.

This collection of prose and poems which are the common bond of childhood across the world is distinguished for the literary quality of the selections and the fitting emphasis upon the fanciful and poetic. The editors of this series of readers are commended for returning to selections of dignity, beauty, and worth.

SARENSEN, VIRGINIA. *The House Next Door,* Utah 1896. Scribner's 1954. 223p. $3.00.

A story for children. The location is in the Utah Territory in 1880. It is one of a new series entitled "The Strength of the Union."

STEVENSON, AUGUSTA. *Nancy Hanks, Kentucky Girl.* Bobbs, 1954. 192p. $1.75.

Episodes in the childhood of the mother of Abraham Lincoln. Written in interesting style for young readers.

WILKIE, KATHARINE E. *Mary Todd Lincoln, Girls of the Bluegrass.* Bobbs, 1954. 192p. $1.75.

A story dealing chiefly with the childhood of the wife of Abraham Lincoln but carrying through to Lincoln's election to the presidency. A book for young readers.

WINDERS, GERTRUDE HECKER. *Ethan Allen, Green Mountain Boy.* Bobbs, 1954. 192p. $1.75.

A book for young children detailing episodes of the childhood of the famous patriot.

Education

CURTIN, JAMES R. *Attitudes of Parents Toward Catholic Education.* Catholic Univ. of America Press, 1954. 52p. $1.00 pemp. Catholic Univ. of America Education Series Monograph, V. 18, no. 4.

A book of interest to both the professional person and general reader. The information is presented in an interesting manner and editorializing is kept at a minimum. Numerous tables sometimes make for cumbersome reading. However, explanation of the tables is clear enough that the reader can understand the implications without being required to interpret the tables themselves. The method of sampling, although commonly used in this type of research, is not recommended by most research workers at the present time. The basic conclusion is that the more education a Catholic parent has, the less favorable they are disposed toward Catholic Education.

MOFFATT, MAURICE. *Social Studies Instruction.* Prentice-Hall, 1954. 559p.

The second edition of a volume designed as a text in methods. A rather complete book containing numerous practical helps for the teacher of social studies.

RUSH, ROBERT R. *The Doctrines of the Great Educators.* St. Martin's Press, 1954. 311p. $2.75.

The tenth printing (revised and enlarged) of a sound and scholarly book. Professor Rusk is a vigorous and stimulating writer and he does not fear to challenge contradiction. He has taught teachers at the University of Glasgow for many years, and knows how to present the writings of the great educators of the past in a way that makes them live and challenge students today.

SACHS, ERNEST. *Prerequisites of Good Teaching, and Other Essays.* Shoe String Press, 1955. 118p. $2.50.

The author has taught medical students for 35 years at Washington University and feels that he has something to say about good teaching methods. He quotes freely from distinguished teachers and has some ideas of his own, as well. The book is brief and clear and refreshingly free from jargon.

WILLIAMS, ROBIN and RYAN, MARGARET, Editors. *Schools in Transition.* Chapel Hill, 1954. 272p. $3.00.

This book is the most important volume of integration of schools since the publication of the famous Ashmore report. It contains a series of 24 case studies of communities that have attempted to move from racially segregated to integrated public schools.

Library Science

BLEGEN, THEODORE C. and other essayists. *Book Collecting and Scholarship.* Univ. of Minn. Press, 1955. 67p.

Five historians and collectors, Belgen, Bell, Pargellis, Storm, and Wright testify to the increasing richness of special book collections in this country, concluding that if we do not become a nation of scholars, it will not be for lack of materials generously provided. A stimulating little volume for those interested in Americana.

DANIELS, WALTER M., Ed. *The Censorship of Books.* Wilson, 1954. 202p. $1.75. Reference Shelf, v. 26, no. 5.

Articles from general and library journals, grouped under (a) the nature of the problem; (b) moral censorship; (c) political censorship; (d) U. S. libraries abroad; (e) textbooks; and (f) the censor and the librarian, cover aspects of "controls," for none of the authors believe in censorship.

MOSHER, FREDRIC J., Editor. *Freedom of Book Selection.* American Library Association, 1954. 132p. $3.50.

Discussions and speeches delivered at the A.L.A.'s second Conference on Intellectual Freedom, have been grouped under (1) areas of controversy, and (2) the responsibility of choice, supplying a sampling of opinions on man's right to knowledge and the free use thereof.

Literature

CATTON, BRUCE. *Banners at Shenandoah.* Doubleday, 1955. 254p. $2.50.

This novel of Phil Sheridan's fighting cavalry is informally informative. Informativeness might have been expected of the author, who holds a Pulitzer Prize for historical work. The informality, clarity and swiftness of the narrative are pleasant surprises. This story should delight high school students.

CAVANAH, FRANCES, editor. *We Came to America*: An Anthology. Macrae-Smith, 1954. 307p. $3.50.

The fresh viewpoint of the outsider's impressions give the young American a new picture of his country and opportunities in this inspiring anthology of 25 accounts, all but four of which are personal narratives, of immigrants or refugees from the old world. Alphabetical arrangements by country of origin makes possible selective reading and quick reference.

FOSTER, CHARLES HOWELL. *The Rungless Ladder.* Duke Univ. Press, 1954. 278p. $4.50.

A full scale study of "Harriet Beecher Stowe and New England Puritanism" has been long overdue. Mr. Foster shows that Mrs. Stowe is a figure to be reckoned with seriously in both the history of the American Literature and of our general culture.

FOSTER, HAROLD. *Prince Valiant's Perilous Voyage.* Hastings House, 1954. 128p. $2.75.

The fourth in a series of adventure-packed stories about a young prince who is a member of King Arthur's Knights of the Round Table.

Readers from eight to eighteen identify themselves with the hero as he sails unknown seas, rides through clashing battles, and uses his nimble wit to overcome his foes.

HOLLAND, VYVYAN. *Son of Oscar Wilde.* Dutton, 1954. 237p. $3.75.

Although the appendix of this volume contains letters and a group of "prose poems" by Oscar Wilde, it is in the main simple the story of what it meant to be the son of a brilliant writer who had suffered disgrace. It is frank and direct in style.

MACKELLER, WILLIAM. *The Mystery of the Ruined Abbey*. Whittney House, 1954. 192p. $2.75.

Teen-agers in search of a thrilling mystery involving a manhunt, a series of robberies and a haunted, deserted abbey will enjoy reading this account of Chip Brown's visit to the supposedly quiet town of Ardour in Scotland and of his adventures as he tries to solve the mystery with his friend Neil Graham. The story is easy to read and is well written. Should appeal to teen-agers who enjoy "mysteries."

Math & Science

BASKT, AARON. *Mathematical Puzzles and Pastimes*. Van Nostrand, 1954. 206p. $3.75.

Contains a variety of material treated in an interesting and entertaining way.

SHERWOOD, G. E. F. and TAYLOR, ANGUS E. *Calculus*. Prentice-Hall, 1954. 579p. $5.75.

A new edition of a very successful text. A well written book for introductory courses in differential and integral calculus. The integral is introduced early in the development.

COPI, IRVING M. *Symbolic Logic*. Macmillan, 1954. 355p. $5.00.

An interestingly written textbook on logic. Requires some maturity to read, a background in mathematics is quite helpful.

Philosophy and Religion

FIREMAN, PETER. *Perceptualistic Theory of Knowledge*. Philosophical Library, 1954. 50p. $2.75.

A very brief treatment of perception, the thought process, logic, and analytic and synthetic modes of thinking. Written in a highly condensed style, it is one of those books which is, in the words of Bacon, "to be chewed and digested."

HAY, TRACY H. *Beyond Our Limitations*. Philosophical Library, 1955. 114p. $3.00.

A thought-provoking book expanding on the theme that not one of the greatest philosophies answer even the simplest question of a child. There is, however, some great design of which each one of us is a part.

MACIVER, ROBERT M., Editor. *New Horizons in Creative Thinking*: A Survey and Forecast. Harper, 1954. 159p. $2.00. Jewish Theological Seminary of America. Religion and Civilization Series.

The collected luncheon addresses given at the Institute for Religious and Social Studies of the Jewish Theological Seminary of America in the winter of 1953-54. All are able, and some brilliant, discourses. The book reads easily and should interest people who prefer the forward look in life, literature, art, ethics, etc.

Social Science

COLE, STEWART G. and WIESE, MILDRED. *Minorities and the American Way*. Harper, 1954. 319p. $4.50.

This book deals with the cultural history of our country and the significance of our ethical heritage in evaluating our efforts to develop out of many people "one nation indivisible."

CRANDELL, RICHARD F. *This Is Westchester: A Study in Suburban Living*. Sterling Publishing Company, 1954. 240p.

Here in pictures and text is the interesting story of what it is like to live in fabulous Westchester, richest of the 3,000 counties in the United States and world famous as the "master bedroom of New York City."

CURRAN, FRANCIS X. *The Churches and the Schools*. Loyola University Press, 1954. 152p. $3.00.

This volume is made up of eight chapters, the first introducing the subject of the churches and the schools; the next six dealing with the educational work of the six principal protestant denominations; the last is entitled "The Churches Relinquish Control." The book is fairly well documented and gives a rapid survey of the subject rather than an exhaustive study.

LANDER, BERNARD. *Toward an Understanding of Juvenile Delinquency*. Columbia University Press, 1954. 158p. $3.00.

This is a study of juvenile delinquency in Baltimore which grew out of a survey conducted by the Maryland State Commission on Juvenile Delinquency.

LUTHIN, REINHARD HENRY. *American Demogogues: Twentieth Century*. Beacon Press, 1954. 368p. $5.00.

American Demogogues points up American political immaturity. It gives ten lessons

on how to become an amoral political force.

It is a serial of the rise and fall of selfish, power-hungry would-be totalitarians of the left and of the right. That these totalitarians are identical is evidenced by their choice of methods which conclude in predetermined ends.

American Demogogues gives good reasons why we should be concerned with methods and not only with "getting the job done."

Science Research Association, Inc. *How to be a Successful Teen-ager,* by WILLIAM C. MENNINGER, and others. Sterling, 1954. 256p. $2.95.

Designed to give teen-agers psychology background for self-analysis, this study is readable, practical, and written to the youngster's point of view. It aims to give him basic understanding of his problems and from this knowledge to develop poise and confidence to live successfully. Well indexed and very comprehensive.

VIRTUE, MAXINE BOORD. *Study of the Basic Structure for Children's Services in Michigan.* American Judicature Society, 1953. 391p. $5.00.

This is a professional legal study which takes cognizance of the interpretations given the legal framework by personnel who are enforcing laws affecting public services to children in Michigan.

Textbooks

AIKEN, DAYMOND J. and HENDERSON, KENNETH. *Algebra, Its Big Ideas and Basic Skills,* Book I. McGraw, 1954. 419p. $2.84.

Designed for first year high school, this book is well planned and written. It has an attractive format. Unique cartoon illustrations are used.

BARTOO, GROVER C. and OSBORN, JESSE. *Solid Geometry.* Webster, 1953. 307p. $1.50.

Seems to be an adequate treatment of solid geometry for high school students.

EDMONSON, DONDINEAU. *Civics for Youth.* Macmillan, 1954. 405p. $2.48.

Revised edition of a textbook in junior high civics. A brief, concise, but rounded treatment.

EDWARD, ALLEN LOUIS. *Statistical Methods for the Behavioral Sciences.* Rinehart, 1954. 542p. $6.50.

This text includes all the concepts and techniques that could be covered in a two semester program for majors in the fields of education and psychology. It may not be as satisfactory for other behavioral sciences. One of its distinguishing characteristics is an introductory chapter which enables the student to review his high school algebra.

SCHIFFERES, JUSTUS J. *Healthier Living.* Wiley, 1954. 928p. $6.75. Health Education Council Book.

This very interesting and informative book covers many phases of living in our world today. It explains (1) who we are—family background and human reproduction (2) why we behave as we do (3) what to do about personal health problems (4) our place in a community health program—along with organizations and agencies—a fine reference book.

SNEAD, MABELLE CLARK. *The Territorial Possessions of the United States.* Vantage Press, 1954. 55p. $2.00.

A small, useful reference source of particular value to high school students. Made more interesting by the use of an imaginary flight from one possession to another.

List

CARLYON, J. T. *Interpreting the Bible to Youth.* Abingdon, 1955. 155p.

KNOWLES, MALCOLM. *Teaching Adults in Informal Courses.* Association Press, 1955.

National Conference on Social Work. *Group Work and Community Organization,* 1953-54. Columbia University Press, 1954. 104p.

O'BRIEN and SHACKLETON, editors. *La Symphonie Pastorale.* Heath, 1954. 126p. $1.25.

PADDOCK, MINNIE. *Basic Medical Terms and Techniques, Simplified.* American Technical Society, 1955. 143p.

UNESCO. *Compulsory Education in South Asia and the Pacific.* UNESCO.

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